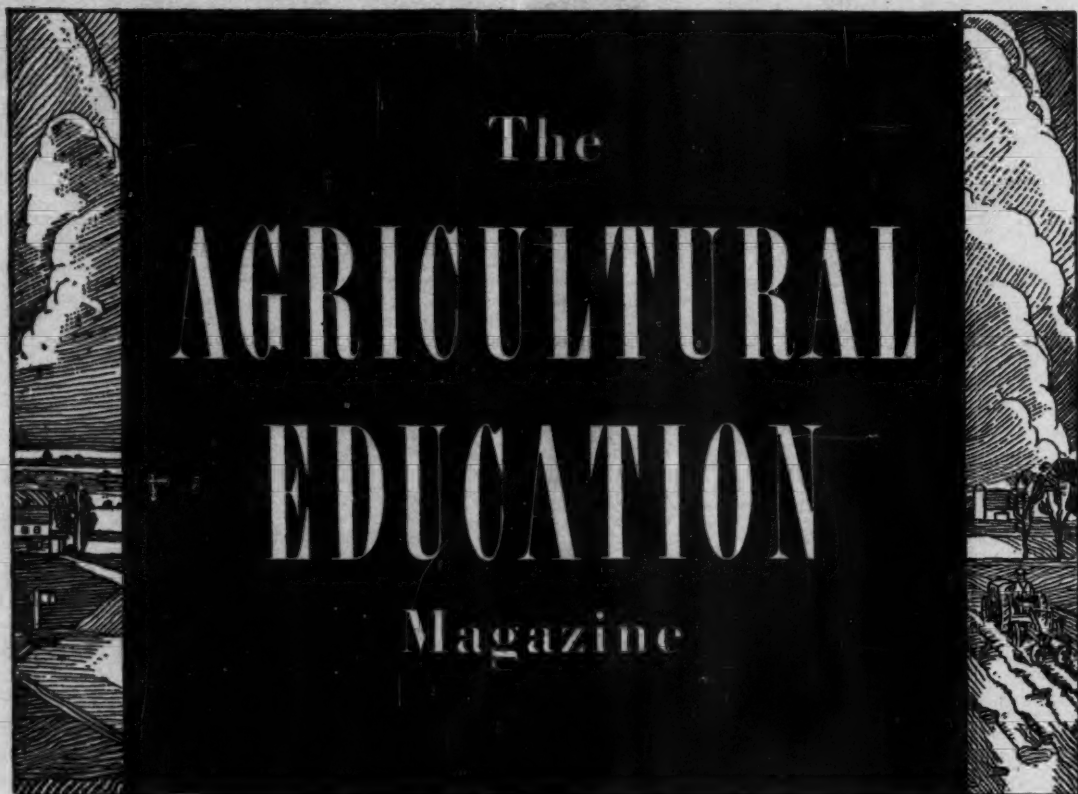


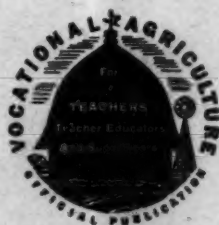
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THE future depends upon our ability to organize and harness machine technology for the greatest possible good to all people. In a democratic society this depends on leadership.—Dean A. S. Knowles, Northeastern University.



The Agricultural Education Magazine

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Editorial Comment

The Right Man in the Right Place

TO THE leaders in agricultural education throughout the nation, and to all those engaged in agricultural education in the Pacific region, the new chief of the agricultural education service needs no introduction. Dr. W. T. Spanton, who succeeded Mr. J. A. Linke to this position on April 1, 1941, served as agent for the Pacific since 1925. Because of Dr. Spanton's wide background of experience and training his appointment has been anticipated and will be approved by leaders everywhere.



W. T. Spanton

Previous to accepting service with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in 1925, Dr. Spanton held the following positions: teacher of agriculture and science in the public schools of Ohio, 1916-19; State Supervisor of agricultural education and State high-school inspector for Missouri, 1920-25.

Dr. Spanton received his undergraduate college education at Ohio State University, and later earned the master of arts degree at Brown University and the degree of doctor of philosophy at American University.

Because of his experience in three of the four regions; because of past manifestations of leadership in FFA development, both in the Pacific region and in the National organization; because of his ability to work with people effectively to achieve ever high accomplishments in agricultural education; and because of his sterling personal qualities, Dr. Spanton admirably meets the requirements of the high office to which he has been appointed. Hail to the Chief!

Should I Attend Summer School?

THIS is the time of year when many teachers of agriculture are faced with the question of whether to attend summer school. To many teachers who are conducting large programs it seems that each succeeding year finds them with more activities to be carried on during the summer months. This year will not be an exception. Defense-training courses, counseling and guidance activities, revision of courses to include instruction on recent developments, and many other problems which cannot now be foreseen will crowd in to make the summer months extremely busy ones. Should three, four, or six weeks be taken from the job for professional improvement at summer school?

A friend of the editor, who is a successful practicing physician, recently announced that he was taking a year off to go to an eastern medical school to carry on post-doctoral study. Most people have thought of the members of the medical profession as individuals who, having spent a long period in professional preparation, go out and practice their profession without any further schooling. However, it is becoming increasingly common for professional men of all types to return for both long and short periods for further systematic study to keep abreast of their profession.

The continuance of systematic study by teachers of vocational agriculture should be regarded as even more important. Most teachers begin their work with only a bachelor's degree. The time was when teachers of agriculture were among the best prepared teachers in the public schools in terms of years of schooling. If this is no longer true, it should give us concern.

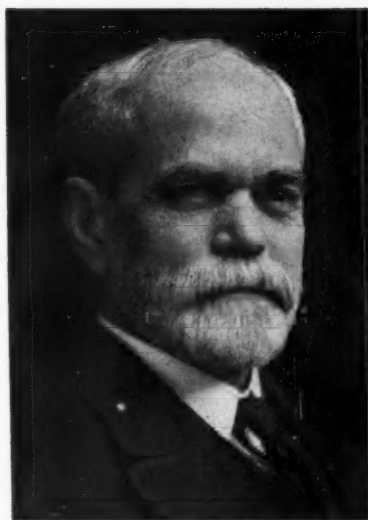
Because of the nature of the subject of agriculture it re-

quires constant study and reading to keep abreast of new developments and advance in knowledge in the field. The subject matter of high-school mathematics, foreign language, or English composition has changed, relatively, very little in the past five years. Not so with agriculture. New developments in animal nutrition, animal breeding, farm machinery and equipment, crop varieties, crop diseases, and soil management fill the yearbook and bulletins of the U.S.D.A. and the State experiment stations until it sometimes seems impossible to become familiar with them unless one could lock himself away from his job in a quiet room for a few days.

This "detached" study is necessary if teachers of agriculture are to keep professionally prepared. New educational problems are constantly coming to the fore as new aspects are introduced into local programs of vocational agriculture. A teacher who can spend a few weeks outside the community to concentrate on these problems will render more service to his community when he returns. It may do him good to get away from the community for a while, so that when he returns he can make a fresh approach to the program.

Colleges and universities are becoming increasingly aware of the in-service needs of teachers of agriculture by providing short, intensive courses in the summer and by providing Saturday, or extension, courses. Teachers of agriculture who want to render more service to their communities and advance in their profession should take advantage of these opportunities.

Eugene Davenport, Pioneer in Agricultural Education, Dies



Eugene Davenport

EUGENE DAVENPORT, Dean Emeritus of the College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, died at his farm home in Woodland, Michigan on March 31, 1941. Following years of service as college administrator, author, and agricultural scientist Dean Davenport enjoyed the rare privilege of 19 years of retirement as a country gentleman, during which he has been able to see many of the developments which he advocated in agricultural education come into being.

As one of the staunchest supporters of vocational education in agriculture, Dean Davenport, probably more than any one man, was instrumental in the development of secondary agricultural education as an integral part of the public school system.

(Continued on page 207)

A. K. GETMAN

Professional

R. W. GREGORY

Planning and Evaluating in Agricultural Education*

H. M. HAMLIN, Teacher Education,
Urbana, Illinois

Fundamental Questions

DURING my 23 years in agricultural education three questions have concerned me and have impelled me to search for their answers:

1. What are we trying to do?
2. How do we know whether we are accomplishing our purposes?
3. How could we better plan and organize to accomplish our purposes?

Let us review the conditions which call for special attention to these questions.

1. *The demands upon teachers of agriculture are ever-increasing.*

Programs are broadening. Enrollments are increasing. In some states the average enrollment per department exceeds 100. Adult work, once ignored, is beginning to occupy a fourth to a half of the time of the teacher in many communities, so that the high-school program must be accomplished in less time than formerly. We must plan the use of our time more carefully. If we do not, we face two alternatives. On the one hand, we may kill ourselves off in attempting to do more than a human being is capable of doing. Thus we may deprive ourselves of leisure or our families of our companionship. We may stunt our growth because of lack of time for professional improvement. On the other hand, we may do a superficial job because we have attempted to do more than we could accomplish in the time available. There is more that might be done than any teacher can do. Not all that teachers might do is of equal importance. We must pick and choose among the many possibilities.

2. *There are tremendous variations in current conceptions of our job.*

Individual teachers vary in their conceptions. Teachers and administrators see the task differently. State supervisors inject other points of view. The people of the community may expect something else. A complaint of many teachers of agriculture is that they have too many bosses, all with different ideas as to what their job is.

3. *The job is changing.*

The list of objectives of agricultural

education prepared in 1929 implied a job markedly different from the job we conceived in 1917. The revision of this list issued by the U. S. Office of Education suggests still further changes.

4. *Our current methods of evaluating accomplishments in agricultural education are haphazard, superficial, and often unfair.*

All of our community programs of agricultural education are evaluated. They always have been evaluated. On some basis or other, decisions are reached as to whether the department should be continued, whether the teacher should be retained, fired, or given a raise. These evaluations are all-important. Most of us respond to the evaluations applied to us. We do what we are expected to do. There are many important consequences of our inadequate evaluation procedures.



H. M. Hamlin

IF PERMANENT progress is to be made in agricultural education, it is essential that different points of view held by leaders in the field be brought to bear on issues which are of critical importance. This searching analysis and appraisal of recent trends in the evaluation and program planning of agricultural education is of value to all who are concerned with planning and evaluating. And who isn't? Not all will agree with Dr. Hamlin. Some will probably wish to go on record as concurring in his points of view. We invite further discussion of these important questions on a constructive basis.

One result is that differences in teachers' real abilities as educators are not brought out, so that we come to regard all teachers as approximately equivalent to each other. The range in salaries paid is slight, tho I suspect that the range in accomplishments is very great. The average salary of experienced teachers is but slightly higher than the average salary of beginners. Teachers who "have what it takes" are irked by this and many of them leave the field for other work in which their accomplishments are recognized and rewarded. Those who remain are tempted to settle down to going thru the motions of teaching agriculture, believing that no one will know the difference anyway. We can never build a strong program as long as these ideas prevail to any considerable extent.

5. *Attempts are being made at improving our present methods of evaluation.*

It has been increasingly evident for some time that effort would have to be given to improving our methods of evaluating agricultural education. The President's Advisory Committee in 1938 arrived at certain evaluations not alto-

gether acceptable to us. School standardizing agencies made another approach in the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards. It has seemed desirable that those engaged in agricultural education should have some share in setting up the standards by which they are to be judged and that they should show more interest in appraising and improving their own program. Consequently a Committee on Standards was set up by the Agricultural Section of the American Vocational Association with Dr. Ray Fife of Ohio State University as chairman and Dr. F. W. Lathrop of the Office of Education as executive officer. Out of the work of this committee has come a plan for evaluation which is being tried in at least 10 percent of the departments in a considerable number of co-operating states. The Committee seeks our criticisms of its procedures. Some of them seem to me to be seriously open to criticism.

What Are We Trying to Do?

There are a few general statements which can be made in answer to this question which will clarify our job appreciably and keep us from serious mistakes in evaluation.

1. Ours is an *educational* program, concerned with bringing about growth and change in people. It is not an agricultural program, tho agricultural changes come about as one of the indirect results of the changes in people affected.

2. The changes in people with which we are concerned, and hence the objectives of our program, may be stated as *new abilities; new interests, attitudes, and appreciations; new goals, ideals, and standards; and new understandings.* Objectives are commonly listed as abilities, on the assumption that if these abilities are developed it will also be necessary to develop the attitudes, ideals, and understandings prerequisite to these abilities.

3. The changes in people, which we seek, are *major* changes, each requiring considerable time to effect, hence our objectives are few but broad and important.

4. Broadly stated objectives are meaningless unless accompanied by *evaluative criteria*, that is, by statements of evidences which might be expected of progress toward the chosen objectives. Objectives and evaluation are therefore inseparable. We have illustrated the desired procedure well in setting up our FFA chapter programs in which we list "objectives" and "goals"; the goals are essentially "evaluative criteria." (The principal limitation to this analogy is that many of the objectives are not educational objectives.)

5. The setting up of our objectives is a *co-operative* task. The Federal government has appropriated funds for use for certain purposes; these funds must not be used for other purposes. Each state expects certain types of results from its state program of agricultural education. Professional groups have compiled various lists of suggestive objectives.

We are expected to make certain important contributions to the school systems of which we are a part. Parents of our boys must be consulted. Members of part-time and evening classes insist on having much to say about the objectives of the courses for which they enroll. Advisory committees are helpful (I think necessary) in formulating objectives. The teacher has ideas which should be incorporated in the program of work.

6. Regardless of who participates in setting up objectives, it is clear that objectives are ultimately accepted or rejected by those who participate as students in day, part-time, and evening classes. The rest of us suggest objectives; these people determine them. We are faced finally with a primary fact in education, that "you can lead a horse to water but you can't make him drink." Furthermore, in a democracy, we do not wish it to be different. Education is concerned with important changes in people; people have a right to decide what changes will be brought about in themselves. We may say that parents share this right with their children, who cannot be trusted to make such decisions alone, but we would insist that children be given more and more to say, as they grow older, about the objectives of their own education. Certainly we cannot in a democracy turn over the choice of objectives to the teacher, the school superintendent, or any other outsider, leaving out of consideration the wishes of those who are being educated.

7. If laymen are to have an important part in setting up their educational objectives, teachers must be able to talk to them about objectives in *non-technical, laymen's language*, or laymen will have to learn the terminology of the schoolman. I believe that it is possible largely to keep our discussions of objectives in terms familiar to our students, young and old. At this point, we face a fork in the road. If we go in the direction I have indicated, we forsake forever the tendency of some schoolmen to try to make education a mysterious process, intelligible only to the few anointed. We cease thinking of education as something which is done for you by someone who knows your needs better than you do and begin to think of it as a process in which educators and educated share, with the educated having the last word, if it is consistent with the general policies under which the schools operate.

How Can We Know Whether We Are Accomplishing Our Purposes?

If we start with the assumption that the evaluation of outcomes is always to be in terms of progress toward educational objectives and if we have our objectives set up, evaluation becomes relatively simple, tho of course it cannot be an exact process.

A good deal of factual evidence can be gathered at the beginning of the attempt to achieve any educational objective regarding the current status of any student or group of students with respect to that objective. Sometimes performance tests can be given. Sometimes data regarding home-farm conditions are relevant. Pencil and paper tests may reveal current understandings and attitudes. There are eight or ten other approaches. Thru the process of working toward the objective, periodic checks may be made

which will discover other facts relevant to the student's progress. We should use objective, factual evidence to the fullest extent possible but, in most of our teaching, we soon reach the point where this must be supplemented by the best opinion available, and preferably by the opinions of several people. Some of them should be disinterested outsiders.

There are dozens of possible evaluative criteria for almost every possible objective. Not all of these need to be applied, but only sample criteria which can be varied from time to time. Care must be taken that the attention of the learner is centered upon the objective, rather than upon some particular evaluative criterion which he knows is going to be applied in this case.

The teacher cannot be allowed unaided to evaluate his own work. There is virtue in separating entirely the teaching and the examining functions.

This is my suggested approach in evaluation. It will be better understood as I review the evaluation plan of the Committee on Standards and show how its recommendations conflict with this proposed procedure. A brief description of the evaluation procedures of the National Committee is perhaps necessary as a basis for criticizing it.

The committee is made up of two representatives from each of the four regions of the United States, one a state supervisor and one a teacher-trainer. In committee sessions an attempt was made to set up standards which might be applied generally over the country to local programs of agricultural education. After some deliberation it was found that it was not wise to try to set up "standards" in such a fashion. The committee then made a rather long list of possible "evaluative criteria." These relate mainly to procedures used rather than to results obtained. These criteria are now being tried out. Studies will be made of the relationship between each criterion and the general rating of the program which will give some indication of the relative significance of each proposed criterion. In each co-operating state, evaluators have been trained. Some of these are teachers, some supervisors, some teacher-trainers. A typical evaluating committee consists of two to five such trained evaluators. In rating a local program on any item, the committee compares the community with an assumed "average" situation in the state with respect to that item. It is not intended that comparisons of departments or of states will be made. Ratings are available to the teacher, to the school administration, and to the state office.

Such a plan for evaluation is seriously in conflict with the plan I have described.

1. It evaluates ways and means of attaining objectives, rather than outcomes.

It seems to me that we shall never know what ways and means are effective until we have some way of evaluating outcomes. I should rather have a crude evaluation of outcomes than an exact accounting of procedures used, however generally approved these procedures may be. The Committee indicates that it has not finally abandoned hope of evaluating outcomes but that it has found the task very difficult and that it finds progress easier in setting up approved procedures as criteria. But what

is progress if it is progress in the wrong direction?

2. The plan does not meet very well the needs of individual communities.

It was designed for a national check-up. Some arrangement may be desirable for this purpose. If the plan were taken seriously and were used to the exclusion of any other plan for evaluation, it would make for an undesirable degree of standardization of community programs of agricultural education. Standardized methods do not always get standardized results.

3. It leaves evaluation to "experts" from outside the community.

This is contrary to the long-accepted American tradition of leaving the evaluation of education mainly to the people of a community or their chosen representatives. It is clear too that outsiders cannot possibly find out some of the things they need to know about the effects of a program upon the daily life of a community. Since the evaluating committee is made up entirely of professional men, specialists in agricultural education, the biases of such persons are very apparent in the evaluations. Their judgments need to be balanced by the judgments of farmers, school administrators, members of agricultural classes, and others.

4. The procedure is undemocratic.

It reveals a distrust on the part of the committee of the ability of people generally to assist in setting up and evaluating their own programs of agricultural education. It takes the crucial judgments about the agricultural department out of the hands of the local people and turns them over to a board of outside experts. It implies that a national committee knows more about the needs of every community in the country than any community can know about its own needs.

5. It is not likely to have very effective results.

The procedure recommended is strangely reminiscent of the school surveys of former days. Thousands of these surveys were made by outside experts. Few of their recommendations were ever heeded because the people of the communities surveyed—the people who run the schools—had no part in arriving at them.

6. It is time-consuming and expensive, considering the values derived.

The procedure used might prove acceptable for an occasional state or national check-up. It is too cumbersome and too expensive for local use, year in and year out, the sort of use which really counts.

7. It is relatively superficial.

Any check-up made by outsiders in one or two days is bound to be superficial. Because it is superficial, it is likely to be unjust.

The best we can hope from the present plan is that it may stimulate the discussion of evaluation, and that it may yield some data needed for a national check-

up. The worst which might happen is that we might carelessly adopt it as a general pattern for evaluation or that we might become so disgusted with this particular plan that we would forego all systematic attempts at evaluation for a generation.

It is clear that an evaluation plan, to succeed, must:

1. Be in the hands of the people who control the local schools;
2. Use outsiders to assist and not to substitute for local people;
3. Deal principally with outcomes, rather than principally with ways and means.

Can We Better Plan and Organize to Accomplish Our Purposes?

It is necessary to have objectives. It is necessary to evaluate progress toward them. It is also necessary to plan and organize for the attainment of objectives. What suggestions can be made regarding the planning and organization of a community program of agricultural education?

I can see the need for three principal kinds of plans:

1. A general, long-time plan adopted by the board of education or by an advisory council responsible to the board of education. This would deal mainly with objectives and with the evaluation of results. It would be revised annually when the objectives of the long-time plan to be stressed during the coming year would be agreed upon.

2. A plan prepared by the teacher for realizing the objectives proposed. The general procedures indicated by the plan would probably be approved by the group authorized to approve the long-time plan, but the details would be left to the teacher.

3. Plans drawn up by students in day, part-time, and evening classes for their own education in agriculture. These would, of course, be in harmony with the general plan.

Representatives of the state office and any others able to help would be consulted in making the general plan and the teacher's plan. Parents and the teacher would have an important part in making the plans of boys in day and part-time classes.

An abstract of the general plan would be circulated widely in the community; suggestions and criticisms from the community would be used in revisions of the plan.

Plans made out by class members would provide for certain objectives to be pursued by the class as a whole, for others which would apply only to groups within the class, and for still others of interest only to individuals.

The advantages to be gained from careful program planning of this type are many:

1. The program becomes the community's, not the teacher's.

2. The community understands what the agricultural department is trying to accomplish and is more likely to judge the department fairly.

3. The thinking of all concerned is clarified. If you have any doubt of the need for the clarification of our thinking, look at the first plans produced by this process.

4. Many possible mistakes are detected in planning and so are never made in practice.

5. Scattering of efforts is avoided and effort is centered upon the attainment of a few important objectives.

6. It provides favorable publicity in the community and indicates that the teacher is businesslike and efficient.

7. It keeps the teacher going when he would otherwise grow weary in well-doing.

8. It teaches the members of our classes to plan and sets before them the example of the teacher.

9. It may make it possible to retain teachers longer thru committing them to a long-time plan, but if changes must be made, they can be made more satisfactorily because the new teacher fits into an on-going program, which is the community's program and not the program of the former teacher alone.

10. It gives a good many people practice in a type of planning closely related to and preparatory for democratic community planning, which must be much more fully developed in the years just ahead.

These plans taken together should be broadly inclusive. One difficulty in the past has been that our planning has been spotted. Certain phases were well planned; others were not planned at all. Outlines of course of study, FFA programs, and project plans have been fairly common, though usually inadequate. Many other areas have been unplanned. Somewhere in the plans made by the community, the teacher, and the class members, provisions should be made for all of the following phases of a program:

1. Objectives
2. Arrangements for evaluation
3. Departmental relationships
4. High-school program
 - a. Classwork
 - b. Supervised practice
 - c. Agricultural organizations
5. Part-time school program
6. Evening school program
7. Summer program
8. Professional activities of teacher
9. Plant, equipment, library, visual aids
10. Records and reports
11. Miscellaneous community activities
12. Calendar

Conclusions

I have attempted only to sketch the broad outlines of an arrangement for program planning and evaluation. The details will develop as we work at the job. My immediate concerns are two: (1) that we get started on the right track and (2) that we get started.

It is quite possible that most of us will wait until we are forced into something of the kind and will then do what is required half-heartedly. The pressure might come from any of several sources: the Washington office, the state office, the school-standardizing agencies, the school superintendents, the school boards, or the communities we serve. It is fairly safe to predict that it will come from somewhere. We cannot expect the public to tolerate the same laxness in the next 23 years that it has tolerated in our first 23 years under Federal aid. Agricultural education has justified itself to the public mainly, until now, as a good idea. We now have to show that this good idea is really working, really bringing results of the kind expected. We cannot

expect to have the opportunity of passing judgment on our own work; almost no one has that opportunity. We must do some rigorous thinking about objectives, about planning, and about evaluation in the next few years.

I do expect that some teachers of agriculture will see that it is to their personal advantage to encourage the movement for program planning and evaluation. They will, at least, be in the right frame of mind to accept whatever they will have to accept; they may have a chance to assist in setting up the machinery. Just now we need to have a good many local attempts at program planning and evaluation which can be studied carefully. We are not ready to jump into the business on a large scale until we work out our procedures for program building and evaluation more fully.

I am strongly of the opinion that it is to the advantage of the teacher to arrange for planning and evaluating along the lines I have suggested, even though no one else is interested in having it done. The first teachers to set up clear-cut programs with arrangements for systematic appraisals of progress are likely to stand out among the teachers of their areas. Most teachers need not fear such evaluations. The brief history we have on this point indicates that the teachers evaluated find that they have accomplished more than they had thought they were accomplishing, and that the public is more favorable to their work than they had supposed it to be. The teacher who is each year given a favorable endorsement by the community on the basis of a real check upon accomplishments goes ahead with increasing confidence and satisfaction. The few teachers who cannot meet this rigorous test are diverted into fields in which they can use their talents to better advantage; they too gain.

The plan described contains little that is new. It does bring together a set of ideas and practices which belong together. For example, there is some value in program planning without evaluation, but program planning becomes quite a different process when it is known that there will be an evaluation on the basis of the objectives set up in the program. Much of our program planning has been weak, also, because the programs have dealt only or mainly with procedures to be followed and have slighted or ignored the objectives of the program. Lists of objectives without feasible procedures for carrying them out avail little. Objectives, programs, evaluation must be studied together. Each must be sound or all will be unsound.

I have tried then to say that:

1. Program planning and evaluation are, in my judgment, the most crucial and basic issues in agricultural education today.

2. We could do a great deal toward improving our objectives by insuring that they are educational objectives, by choosing them more carefully, by allowing the community and our students to share in their choice, and by setting up in advance certain possible criteria by which progress toward them might be evaluated.

3. We need an evaluation procedure administered by local laymen with the assistance of local and outside professional men and one which deals with outcomes rather than procedures.

4. We need written programs of agri-

cultural education which combine objectives with ways and means of attaining them and with plans for evaluation.

5. We need immediately to try out promising proposals for program planning and evaluation which are in har-

mony with the theories we believe to be sound rather than to spend our efforts on a program which has already been handed us but which does not square with our basic principles.

*Paper presented at the Agricultural Section of the Annual Convention of the Indiana State Teachers Association, October 24, 1940.

Responsibilities and Relationships

NELSON M. COOK, Teacher,
Bourbon, Indiana

THE education of most teachers of vocational agriculture has emphasized technical agriculture rather than professional education. This is probably as it should be. It might seem that, with the greater emphasis placed upon agriculture in teacher-educating institutions, teachers of vocational agriculture might spend their time in training prospective farmers, ignoring school duties and professional problems. This is exactly the thing that too often has been done. It has caused school officials, and others in the field of education, to look upon the teacher of vocational agriculture and his department with disfavor. Long-established departments may fail and new departments fail to materialize because the teachers tend to separate the departments of agriculture from the rest of the school system.

It is this situation which has prompted the writer to study the cause, and to try to bring about closer co-operation between the teachers of vocational agriculture, the academic teachers, and school officials.

The responsibilities of the teacher of agriculture may be grouped under three headings. These are: responsibilities as a teacher in the public schools, responsibilities as a leader in the community, and responsibilities as a citizen in the community.

The Ideal Teacher

The teacher of agriculture is employed as a teacher, and as such it is his duty to help bring about those changes in habits and attitudes that will mold boys and girls into good citizens for our democratic society of tomorrow. Yes, he must teach agriculture, but he must use it as a tool to discharge his duty as a teacher.

The teacher of vocational agriculture must never forget that he is teaching boys thru the medium of agriculture. Thousands of farm boys have grown up to be successful farmers without vocational agriculture because someone fired them with enthusiasm for self-study. It is not the actual amount of agricultural knowledge that a boy assimilates in class that makes him a successful farmer, but rather the development of an open mind and the desire to learn. Teachers of vocational agriculture have ample opportunity to quicken the love of rural life, to increase the respect for agriculture, and to create in the hearts of rural boys and girls the desire to learn.

Teachers of vocational agriculture must become educators. When they do they become a part of the school system. All teachers of the school system must work, not as individuals, but as a group. As the school system is improved every department of the system shares in that

improvement either directly or indirectly. School duties must be shared by all, and school problems must be solved by the co-operation of all teachers. The teacher of vocational agriculture must accept these responsibilities and discharge them properly if he and his department are to have the respect and co-operation of school administrators and fellow teachers. It is the duty of the teacher of vocational agriculture, as well as that of every other teacher, to acquaint the public with school activities. Newspaper and magazine articles, posters, demonstrations, and talks serve to discharge this duty.

Community Leadership Needed

The teacher of agriculture, because of valuable training in his chosen field, should assist farmers in solving their problems when these problems are brought to him. It is difficult for a leader to force anyone to accept an idea; but when the problem is brought to the leader, practical advice can be given and will be readily accepted. No teacher of agriculture can shift the responsibility of organizing rural boys into FFA chapters or agricultural societies. These boys will be the leaders of tomorrow's agriculture and must prepare for that task.

It is often possible to work, in an advisory capacity, with various farm organizations. Membership in these organizations may be held by the teacher, but in no case should he act as sponsor or promoter for such organizations. The teacher's job is to educate for, and not to promote organizations. The teacher of agriculture is charged with the responsibility, along with the county agent, of bringing the latest information to the adult farmers and of bettering rural life of the community. For that reason close co-operation with the county agent and the whole extension program is imperative. Teachers can develop leaders who can aid the county agent in securing enrollment, organizing and visiting 4-H Club organizations. After all, both the county agent and the teacher of vocational agriculture are interested in the same families and the same farmers, and are trying to effect the same changes in rural life. There is no reason why the teacher and the county agent should not co-operate in all of their work.

The Teacher as a Citizen

The third responsibility of the teacher of vocational agriculture is as a citizen in the community. The teacher—any teacher for that matter—should conduct himself in such a manner as to exemplify his teaching. Many teachers have failed because they did not live up

to the standards they taught. The teacher of vocational agriculture working with boys should be an example of good character both on and off the "stage." He should be able to command and hold the respect of his students as well as the respect of those with whom he works. He should be fair minded, co-operative, and diplomatic in all his dealings.

Nonpartisanship Essential

Teachers should refrain from discussing political questions, as such, either in or out of the classroom. The schools are public and for that reason partisan politics and sectarianism should be withheld from class discussion. Every teacher should vote in both primary and general elections and should urge all who are eligible to do the same. The teacher of vocational agriculture should affiliate with civic clubs and other organizations which have the betterment of the community at heart. Every teacher should affiliate with the church of his choice in the community, if there is one. If not, and he cannot affiliate with a church in the community, he should seek employment elsewhere. Whenever possible the teacher should do the church tasks assigned him to do.

When teachers of agriculture discharge these duties and co-operate with the community to the best of their ability, the community will co-operate with them and their length of tenure will be increased. The teachers themselves will have the respect and co-operation of their fellow teachers and the good will of the people they serve. In time this high standard of service by the teacher will result in all rural schools having departments of vocational agriculture. Thus, every farm boy will have an opportunity to develop an appreciation of agriculture and the desire to learn and practice better methods of farming.

Davenport

(Continued from page 203)

At this time, when expansions in vocational education are in the making, and when voices of individuals or groups are heard which would promote vocational education in forms rather far removed from local public control, his admonitions voiced some time ago are now particularly timely. "I beg of you, my fellow teachers", said Dean Davenport in his *Education for Efficiency*, "to settle this problem as your religion. The fates have put it upon you to settle. A generation or two and it will be too late. As you settle it, do not shirk labor, do not fly to the separate school because it is easier, but treasure as your life, I beg of you, the universality, the integrity, and the unity of the American educational system."

Thruout his retirement Dean Davenport had maintained a keen interest in agricultural education. His alertness of mind and his wit and wisdom as a speaker seemed never to diminish. Even up to the last year of his life he was in demand as a speaker at gatherings of educators, and at FFA banquets and similar meetings. He has been a constant source of optimism to many during the recent crucial years.

A. M. FIELD

Methods

Tests That Measure What We Teach

S. S. SUTHERLAND, Teacher Education,
Davis, California

TEACHERS, generally, probably are less well informed about measuring the results of instruction than about most other phases of teaching. As a result they often do a poorer job of this than of any other teaching duty. It may also be particularly true of teachers of vocational agriculture. While standard types of written tests do a reasonably good job of measuring what facts and principles have been acquired, these tests generally fail to give a complete picture of what a boy in a class in agriculture has done and is doing toward the accomplishment of vocational objectives.



S. S. Sutherland

It is generally agreed that any device, or combination of devices used to measure the results of instruction, and taken as a basis for marking, should measure accurately the following:

1. The pupil's present knowledge of the important facts and principles which he has been taught.

2. His ability and disposition to apply these facts in the classroom and out, and the extent to which he does so.

3. His ability to find additional facts when needed, and to apply them in solving his immediate problems.

4. His interest in and general attitude toward his entire instructional program in vocational agriculture.

In addition, our measuring devices should, to be most effective:

1. Contribute to the classwork; be an instructional as well as a measuring device.

2. Minimize cramming.

3. Eliminate, insofar as possible, cribbing and cheating.

4. Be relatively easy to prepare, administer and score.

Shortcomings of Traditional Tests

Obviously the traditional, written examination or quiz, made up of fact questions, true-false, completion, or multiple-choice statements, and essay-type questions, will not adequately measure the pupil's interest, his attitude, nor his ability to find and use facts. Neither will it measure the extent to which the pupil applies them in situations outside the classroom. These types of tests do little to eliminate cramming—especially if announced in advance; and little, of themselves, to minimize cheating. About all that can be said for them is that they are comparatively easy to prepare, to give and score, and that they do measure the number of facts a

pupil has retained up to the time they are given. On this basis, they probably have a place in our measurement program, but that place is a minor one, and they certainly should not be relied upon as the sole means of measuring the results of our instruction, and as the sole basis for determining the marks and accomplishments of our pupils.

It has been suggested, and not without reason, that a far more valid measuring device, if a single one must be chosen, would be the pupil's accomplishments in his supervised farming program, but this method too has some attendant difficulties. There seems to be little question, however, that these accomplishments should constitute one means of measurement, and one basis for assigning marks.

In vocational agriculture, where the major aim of our teaching should be the development in our pupils of ability to do certain important farm jobs, most of our testing should be pointed toward determining whether pupils can do these jobs well, and whether they do them in the way they were taught. To this end much use might well be made of "doing" tests.

"Doing" Tests

When a class has been taught to cull hens for egg production, why shouldn't a test be given which requires each pupil to cull a small number of birds and to give reasons to the instructor and class for his decisions? "Doing" tests are not limited to jobs requiring manual skills. When the teacher has taught a unit designed to develop in his pupils the ability to plan crop rotations, the logical way to measure the results of his teaching is to require each pupil to plan a suitable cropping plan for a given farm under a given situation, and to justify the plan which he recommends.

With the general trend in these secondary schools toward de-emphasizing grades, it is becoming increasingly important that the pupils themselves be made to understand what is expected of them, and what objectives they may be expected to attain. More and more, pupils must be made to realize that the marks are not an end in themselves, but that pupil and teacher are working together toward a goal or goals clearly evident to and understood by both parties. To this end, it is probable that more use can be made of measuring devices which will enable the pupil to evaluate his own progress and his own accomplishments, for by doing so, he becomes more cognizant of the bases upon which he is being measured, and what is expected of him.

Such a self-rating device was described in the January, 1941 issue of *The Agricultural Education Magazine* in an article entitled "Pupils Can Rate

Themselves." This device has been used by a number of schools in California and found to work well in bringing to pupils a realization of what they are supposed to do, and just how well they are doing it. Naturally, the instructors make use of tests and other devices for determining their own ratings. In practice, marks of instructors and pupils have agreed remarkably well. There is a tendency for some of the better pupils to under-rate themselves; for some of the poorer to rate themselves too highly. It has resulted in better co-operation from the pupils, and more emphasis on some of the important outcomes of vocational instruction in agriculture.

While this device is quite subjective, perhaps it is better to measure *all* of the desirable results of instruction subjectively than to bend all of our efforts to measuring one minor outcome objectively, ignoring the rest.

Similar to the self-rating device for all-day pupils mentioned above, is one developed for Negro part-time class pupils by Mr. C. D. Yancy of Calvert, Texas. This scale enables the instructor to measure the progress made by the young farmers in his classes in terms of four factors: (1) their use of business methods in farming; (2) the vocational improvement made, including the use made of state and Federal agencies, periodicals, bulletins, etc.; (3) the part they have taken in community affairs, and (4) what they have done to improve their farming and their farm practices.

This scale raises questions as to what each pupil has done in applying the instruction received in organized classes not to hypothetical situations, but in actual practice on his farm and in everyday life. It enables the instructor not only to evaluate the progress each pupil is making, but also to call that pupil's attention to what is expected of him as a result of the instruction he has received.

Formal Tests Not Enough

The real measurement of the results of instruction cannot be accomplished by the use of formal tests alone, but must go further and measure what the student habitually does in terms of what he has been taught.

A testing program which includes well-organized "doing" tests and frequent critical evaluations of supervised farming programs checked against the pupil's own evaluation of his attitude and accomplishments, should give the teacher of vocational agriculture a valid basis for measuring results.

A former superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools is credited with this statement regarding examinations, "I cannot see how a pupil can be tested by writing for three hours on what has been learned during the year (or a semester) mostly in other ways than in writing."

If this statement be true of general subjects, how much more is it true of vocational agriculture?

Some Problems in Philosophy of Method

CARSIE HAMMONDS, Teacher Education,
Lexington, Kentucky

WHAT learnings to secure is the most baffling problem in agricultural education, or in any other kind of education. If education implies a contemplated product, if it calls for learning aims and objectives, who shall decide on the kind of product, and who shall determine what the learning objectives shall be? Shall school administrators set up the learning objectives, or shall teachers, or shall pupils, or shall teachers and pupils together, or shall somebody else? Who possesses the philosophy?



Carsie Hammonds

Objectives Are Not Derived From Facts Alone

Educational objectives cannot be arrived at except in terms of one's philosophy. They are not arrived at scientifically, as we commonly use the term science. There is need for facts, but fact-finding by itself is not a sufficient basis for the program of a school or a course of study. The investigator's values play a large part in determining the facts he collects; and to make use of the facts, there must be a criterion of value. In the last analysis, only philosophy can construct such an instrument of measure.

In education, desired effects upon forms of behavior are produced only thru the behavior of those in whom the effects are produced. We are forced to value the behavior-to-be and to present behavior of the learner as influencing the behavior-to-be. We cannot escape the necessity for valuating present behavior of the learner as useful or not, as it produces or does not produce a desirable effect on his future behavior. Apparently, it is impossible so to value behavior in the absence of objectives.

We must distinguish between value as desire and value as the desirable—between needs and desires. The student may value his present behavior as useful or not useful in the degree that it produces satisfaction or fails to produce it. This we may call present-life value, as contrasted with educational value. (As stated by T. H. Eaton in his recent *Philosophy of Education*.) These values are by no necessity of the same denominator, nor are they by necessity out of harmony.

Whose Values?

Who shall determine the value? If the learners determine it, will they determine it in terms of educational value or in terms of present-life value? The demand for valuation against two measures presents a difficulty. The most satisfying behavior at the moment may not be the behavior most appropriate to produce the desired changes in the behavior of the learner. The educator must not disregard either of the two measures. He must not neglect the factor of satisfaction in the learning process he as-

sumes to guide, nor should he forget that the present behavior is educationally useful or not as it produces or does not produce a desirable effect on future behavior.

The teacher would do well to see that the learner has worth-while objectives—learning and others—not only in order that satisfaction in the learning process may be increased, but that the learner may have purpose, which is so necessary to quality of experience. Otherwise, the learner's reactions to difficulties will be mere efforts at avoidance or escape. If the learner strives toward an end sought, his activity takes on direction, becomes intelligent. The things between him and his goal which are means to achieving that goal are, when recognized by him of interest to him. (*Inter-est* is Latin for that which "is between.") Education becomes a joint undertaking only when teacher and pupil unite in pursuit of a common end. To the extent that the learner has a worth-while learning objective, present-life value and educational value tend to be the same; present behavior produces satisfaction because it leads toward attainment of the objective.

Relation of Environmental Changes to Learning

There is a belief that, since environmental changes, since this is an evolving society, since vocations change, we should not secure learning *now*, but should wait because we cannot know what learnings to secure. Some people contend that the sole purpose of education is that the learner may learn to learn. But one cannot learn to learn without learning something; he cannot come to possess a learned ability without acquiring it by learning—without acquiring it by experiencing. For example, one cannot adapt himself (in a manner requiring a learned ability) who has never adapted; one cannot adapt an ability he does not possess. Ability to learn a new mode of behavior, in most instances, largely depends on what has been learned before. New meanings are built out of old meanings. In solving a problem, one makes large use of previous experience. If one does not have the necessary experience, he will have to get it before he can solve the problem at hand. Environments and societies do change. This is all the more justification for education, as man cannot bring about changes or adjust himself to them with the same kind of responses that heredity gives the ant and the bee—fixed, unhesitant, unvarying, mechanical responses.

Group, or Individual Objectives?

Current emphasis on individual instruction brings to the fore a problem I wish to mention. In an education designed to make life as useful and meaningful as may be, to what extent may objectives well be made common? It seems that insofar as success requires of individuals in a group the same or closely similar effective abilities, the ob-

jectives may be common, and likewise the content, within the limits of individual differences. Thus, group teaching

(Continued on page 215)

Summer Teaching vs. Visiting

F. E. HEALD, Teacher Education,
Amherst, Massachusetts

THE best teaching by our best teachers occurs on the job rather than in the classroom, oftentimes during the summer months. Some men appear to go thru the motions of visiting pupils and credit themselves with so many visits of a very perfunctory nature. The difference may be obvious in the immediate results, but it is sure to appear in the long-term results.

The boy was, (or should have been), placed for the summer with the distinct understanding that certain farm skills were to be gained under supervision. In the absence of the instructor, some person agrees to assume this responsibility. The teacher should check on the progress in this line at the time of each visit and in many cases he will find further lessons are needed. This is especially true of boys who have light summer responsibilities.

The Farm Is the Laboratory

The field or barn is the laboratory in agriculture. Here the boy learns the technique, but he also encounters problems which no amount of classroom teaching would have made so real. Dealing with these problems while they are fresh is one of the most valuable teaching opportunities. Next fall may be a good time to review them, but the vital learning period is now.

With real projects, new decisions will be called for because of unforeseen developments. At times, the teacher may have to give arbitrary directions to meet the emergency, but when it is possible to discuss the new difficulty and arrive at decisions, the pupil should amend his plans in the same manner in which he made the original. This requires frequent visits which are not hurried.

Interesting Boys in Farm Work

Many interesting observations which may break the monotony of farm routine are overlooked by the pupils. The habit or the attitude of looking for interesting things is not apparent in some boys, but a skillful teacher can bring it out with persistent attention. With some persons, this habit, when developed, changes intolerable drudgery into an interesting experience. The farm may be either, just as you take it, or the interest of some teachers in the wonders of nature may prove to be contagious.

Farming is both an occupation and a mode of life. Teaching during the summer, or on the projects at any time, must not omit either of these phases, and the interest of the teacher must be real rather than perfunctory if he expects to get results. This would indicate that an instructor should plan carefully to make each visit as profitable to the pupil as possible.

Supervised Practice

H. H. GIBSON

The Washington State Association FFA Loan-Fund Plan

J. A. GUITTEAU, State Supervisor,
Olympia, Washington

THE need for a uniform method of handling loans to students to finance their supervised practice programs has become increasingly acute in Washington during recent years. In this state, according to the 1935 agricultural census, a little over 27 percent of all of the farmers are listed as part-time farmers. In addition to this, there are about 20 percent of the farmers either operating as clients of the Farm Security Administration, working on WPA, or in the low-income group.



J. A. Guiteau

Thus, over one-half of the persons listed as farmers are unable to assist their boys in financing their project work. Consequently, considerable money has been borrowed thru local banks or from the Farm Credit Administration to assist boys in developing a more adequate supervised practice program. Observation of the experience obtained in the various schools has brought certain very definite conclusions and weaknesses in the independent method of financing.

Difficulties With Independent Method of Financing

We find, for example, that many loans were made which were too large. Second, inadequate budgeting plans for repayment were being made. It is extremely difficult for a family to permit a boy to accumulate \$25, \$50, or \$100 to pay off a loan when the family needs are as great as they are in many instances.

Third, credit granted by financial institutions was only too frequently based upon the dependability of the teacher. The teacher who established good credit for himself and whose judgment was respected was granted considerable credit, while other teachers were unable to get sufficient credit.

Fourth, change of teachers brought about two unfortunate outcomes. The financial institution would hesitate to continue making loans until the new man had established himself, and the collection of loans made by the previous teacher was made more difficult for the loaning institution.

Several FFA chapters conducted group activities which netted them considerable money, many chapters having as much as \$500 or \$600 in the treasury

APPLICATION FOR A LOAN-FUND CHARTER

Washington Association Future Farmers of America,
Olympia, Washington

THE Chapter of the Washington Association of the Future Farmers of America hereby makes application to the Board of Trustees of the Association for a Loan-Fund Charter. The Chapter has earned \$..... and has set this amount aside as a permanent loan fund (a minimum of \$100 is required) with the understanding that this amount will be increased to \$500, or \$10 per pupil enrolled in vocational agriculture. (With this application is included a supplemental statement showing exactly how the above money was earned.)

The chapter agrees that the following rules, regulations, and policies for handling the loan fund will be strictly followed in making all loans and that the Treasurer of the local chapter will keep a set of books showing the exact status of the loan fund at all times:

1. The loan fund shall remain the permanent property of the chapter and, if at the end of any calendar year there are losses, the chapter pledges itself to make up said losses to the permanent fund according to a plan submitted by the local chapter and subject to the approval of the Board of Trustees of the State Association as a condition for retaining its Loan-Fund Charter.

2. A minimum of 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ percent of the earnings of the chapter shall be placed in the loan fund until such time as the \$500 or \$10 per pupil enrollment is attained.

3. Money placed in the loan fund shall be used solely in assisting worthy students in financing production projects which shall be limited to one year, or for a production cycle only, except that the chapter is entitled to use money from these funds for its own productive enterprises.

4. If the chapter funds are sufficient to meet the needs of members, then said funds may be loaned directly, but in the event that additional funds are needed, then the original capital should be invested in bankable securities and deposited with the loaning institution to cover any losses which may be incurred by the chapter.

5. All loans shall be made by a loan committee made up approximately as follows: two seniors, two juniors, and one sophomore, operating under the guidance of an "advisory committee" composed of the local teacher of agriculture, the superintendent or principal of the school, and a farmer, banker, or businessman.

6. The following schedule of loans should be maintained unless the advisory committee approves of larger loans:

Loan to a Freshman boy should not exceed \$50.		
If chapter fund is:	\$100	individual loan should not exceed \$ 50
"	200	" " 75
"	300	" " 100
"	400	" " 125
"	500	" " 150

7. Each applicant for a loan shall present a production plan in writing and a plan or budget for repayment. The applicant shall present this written plan in person and be prepared to answer all questions which the loan committee may consider desirable or necessary to determine:

- (1) Feasibility of the project.
- (2) The reasonableness of the plan.
- (3) Worthiness of the boy, and his dependability.
- (4) Evidence that the parents are in full accord with the loan and will sign the note with the boy.

8. Repayments should be budgeted so that it is definitely agreed that the loan will be repaid as income is derived from the project.

9. The loan fund shall be audited annually by a committee consisting of the president of the chapter, a farmer, a businessman or banker (preferably connected with the bank where the chapter does business), and the superintendent of schools.

10. A complete financial and statistical report of the condition of the chapter shall be made January 1 of each year to the State Association. If for any reason the general policies are not in keeping with the conditions under which the Loan-Fund Charter is granted it may be withdrawn upon the recommendation of the state adviser.

11. It is understood that the rules, regulations, and policies governing the Washington State FFA Loan-Fund Plan will be revised annually as needed.

The Chapter has submitted the Loan-Fund Plan to the following named financial institution and will receive co-operation under the terms of this plan:

The chapter has selected the following persons who have signified their willingness to serve on the advisory committee:

Chapter Adviser

Superintendent or Principal

Farmer—Banker—Businessman

The above application for a Loan-Fund Charter was authorized at a meeting of the Chapter of the Future Farmers of America on _____, as witnessed by the President and Secretary of the Association.
Approved: (Date) _____

Superintendent of Schools

President

Chapter Adviser

Secretary

Recommended to the Executive Committee of the Washington State Association for a Loan-Fund Charter this _____ day of _____, 194 _____

State Adviser

at one time. This much money on hand was always a temptation to the boys to have parties and to take extended trips, some of which were unnecessary. Some of these chapters were encouraged to loan their own funds to needy chapter members, with the officers of the local

chapter usually acting as a loan committee. These loaning activities proved to be quite successful. The boys were exceedingly careful in making their loans. Consequently their repayment experience was very high.

As a result of this experience the

Washington Association of the Future Farmers of America decided to develop a loan-fund plan and to issue charters to the local chapters to operate under the terms of this plan. Our application form for a loan fund contains the principles, rules, and regulations which have been agreed upon after consultation with representatives of both the State Bankers' Association and the officers of the Production Credit Corporation in this State. The Agricultural Committee of the State Bankers' Association has approved the loan-fund plan and will encourage bankers in the state to co-operate with local teachers in carrying it out. Likewise, President Henry of the Spokane Production Credit Corporation has undertaken to acquaint the officers of their regional branches with the loan-fund plan and has asked them to co-operate with the chapters.

Supervision Connected With the Financing of Farming Programs

R. B. AAKRE, Teacher, St. Louis County Rural Schools,
Duluth, Minnesota

IN THE past two years I have had the experience of loaning money to students enrolled in vocational agriculture in 16 different high-school departments of vocational agriculture. The loans have

varied in size, depending on the type and scope of the project.

Rules and regulations governing the loaning procedure were set up by a committee of instructors, together with the

RULES AND REGULATIONS OF FUTURE FARMERS' REVOLVING PROJECT—LOAN FUND

1. Amount of fund (revolving) \$1,000.
2. Name, Future Farmers' Project Loan Fund.
3. Sponsor, Western National Bank of Duluth, in co-operation with instructors of vocational agriculture of Seventh District M.V.A.I.A.
4. Purpose,
 - A. To aid worthy students of vocational agriculture in the financing of productive farm projects.
 - B. To teach obligation, respect, thrift, and procedure in the use of credit.
 - C. To enable students to increase their earnings in farm projects.
5. Loaning Area, Seventh District high-school agriculture departments.
6. Eligibility for Borrowing,
 - A. Students of vocational agriculture in the Seventh District.
 - B. Students enrolled in part-time classes conducted in departments of vocational agriculture in the Seventh District.
 - C. All loans that have been approved by the local agriculture instructor and parent or guardian of the student making loan and by the district loan committee.
7. Limitation of Loans,
 - A. If the demand for loans exceeds the fund available, the loan committee has the authority to limit the number of loans and the amount of same to any one school in proportion to the enrollment in classes of vocational agriculture.
 - B. The maximum loan to a student at any one time shall be \$50 and the minimum loan shall be \$5.
8. Procedure in Obtaining Loan,
 - A. Student applies for loan from local teacher of agriculture.
 - B. The application will then be referred to the chairman of the loan committee, who will act as agent for the bank in issuing the loan.
 - C. The note must be signed in ink by student and parent or guardian.
9. Payment of Loan,
 - A. The interest rate shall be six percent per annum, payable at maturity date of loan.
 - B. The date of maturity of notes may vary according to the project, but in no event shall the loan be made for less than six months nor more than 30 months.
 - C. Students should arrange to have their loans fall due at a time when project is expected to bring in the largest cash return.
10. Students obtaining loans are requested to keep an accurate and detailed record of their loan project at all times.
11. A summary of the loan projects and the financial standing and progress of the fund, shall be made annually by the chairman of the loan committee.

FUTURE FARMERS' PROJECT LOAN FUND (REVOLVING) APPLICATION BLANK

1. Name of applicant _____ Date _____ Age _____
 2. Address _____ School _____ Ag. Class _____
 3. Type of project _____ Scope _____
Funds will be used for purchase of _____
(Enumerate costs in detail)
 4. Method or plan of paying back loan _____
 5. Duration of loan. (Plan to make loan due when income from project is expected.)
Date loan went into effect _____
Maturity date of loan _____ Amount of interest to be paid at six percent _____
Total due on maturity date _____
 6. Will parent or guardian co-operate with you in making your project successful?
Will parent or guardian endorse note? _____
 7. Name of parent or guardian endorsing note _____ Address _____
 8. Signature of teacher of agriculture recommending loan _____ School _____
 9. Approved by _____ Chairman, District Loan Committee.
- IMPORTANT: Copies to be made in triplicate, one for student, one for local agriculture department, and one for Chairman of District Loan Committee. (Send two of the copies to loan committee chairman, one of which will be returned to indicate approval.)

sponsor of the fund, which in this case was one of the local banks in the area. The sponsor did not interfere with the rules and regulations that we had set up, but merely asked that we handle all the loan applications, the making of notes, the writing of checks, and similar official matters. In connection with this work I have had the occasion to visit a great many of the students who had received loans from the fund.

The local agriculture instructor in each case passed upon the eligibility of students receiving loans from his department, with the consent of parents and a local advisory committee. This committee was available to pass judgment upon the needs and soundness of the project for which the loan was being considered. This was all well and good, and the agriculture instructors in the area were happy, for at last we had a fund from which they could borrow money for these needy and worthy students who needed financing for carrying on an agricultural project. In that way, they could also build up an income for many students who would not otherwise have such an opportunity. Let me say that we had a splendid set of rules and regulations governing the loaning and operation of the fund, including the student's and agriculture instructor's responsibility in carrying out the recommended practices of the project, in other words, the supervised practice in connection with these financed projects.

Getting the Loan Paid Off

Now here were some of the greatest weaknesses in the whole setup of making loans to students. The easiest part is the loaning of the money; the most difficult one is carrying on a successful project and paying up the project loan when it is due. I definitely know that many of the instructors are weak on supervising the practices that should be carried on in connection with the project. However, I would also like to pay tribute at this point to the instructors and their students who did a good job of supervised practice on these project loans. But I cannot forget those who neglected to carry on a program of approved practices with the student and who were primarily interested in getting a loan for the boy, initiating a project, and then forgetting about the follow-up work of the project.

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L. B. POLLOM

Farm Mechanics

The Status of Instruction in Farm Mechanics in the North Atlantic Region

A. D. LONGHOUSE, Teacher Education*,
Morgantown, W. Virginia

THE purpose of this survey was to determine what is being done in farm-mechanics instruction in the North Atlantic Region, and to compile this information as a working basis for future studies and revision of objectives.

Thru questionnaires an attempt was made to get a cross-section picture of farm-mechanics instruction in all three phases of our vocational program. No attempt was made to determine the content of instruction other than generalized subjects such as carpentry, harness repair, etc.

Unfortunately, some of the questionnaires were answered in such a way that no figures or approximations could be made. In these cases I have listed the various quotations under "Exceptions" which appear beneath each table.

As expected, the accompanying three tables indicate that, on the average, very little shop instruction is given to the two older groups. This is undoubtedly due to lack of facilities, especially when such courses are taught away from the departmental buildings. In other cases administrative policies, training and experience of teachers, and the groups taught will determine the amount or kind of mechanics given.

Apparently there is a tendency in most states to recommend that 25 percent of the classroom time be devoted to farm mechanics. This should be ample if teachers would make the best of this time.

It was hoped that the answers to the above questions on course organization would reveal whether or not each state fits its mechanics program into the agricultural curriculum as a whole. The summary indicated that there is a general desire to integrate farm mechanics with classroom studies, that the work is distributed over a four-year period, and, in general, that it is made to meet the needs of farm boys.

Table 3 shows considerable variation in the shop programs, not only among the three divisions of our vocational program, but among the units of work taught in any single program.

There is a noticeably smaller amount of shopwork given to the older groups. To some extent at least it would seem desirable to have more mechanics taught to the older groups. This might deal with machinery repair, carpentry,

plumbing, harness repair, cold iron, tool fitting, and electricity. The adults need this training to put into immediate use. The part-time student may start equipping his farm by buying used machinery

at auctions and putting it into shape during his class meetings. The adult farmer needs the training in order to take care of and preserve what he now has.

Previously it was mentioned that the problem of furnishing adequate facilities for mechanics instruction for the older groups is difficult especially when the schools are held away from the main school plant, but this is not always the basic reason.

1. Reports indicated that the present training of teachers is not adequate in a majority of the states. Statements con-



A. D. Longhouse

Table 1

Time Devoted to Farm-Mechanics Instruction in Departments of Vocational Agriculture

	Low	High	Ave.
A. All-day Classes ^a (13 reporting)			
1. Number of school days in school year	180	190	181
2. Number of school days devoted to shop	18	81	40
3. Approximate percent of each school year	10	44	26
4. Average length of class period	80	130	92
B. Part-time Classes ^b (eight reporting)			
1. Approximate percentage of class time given to shop	2	33	20
2. Number of meetings for each part-time class	10	25	17
3. Number of meetings devoted to shop	1	6	4
4. Average length of class period	90	120	150
C. Evening Classes ^c (four reporting)			
1. Approximate percentage of class time given to shop	2	30	13
2. Number of meetings for each evening class	10	20	15
3. Number of meetings devoted to shop	1	8	4
4. Average length of class period	90	120	105

Exceptions: a. One state indicated one full year devoted to shopwork. This would be 25 percent of the four-year program. One state said, "It varies with the demand for the development of particular shop skills."

b. Two states indicated only one class received shop instruction. One state said "Impossible to estimate."

c. Two states stated "May be all or none as case may be."

c. One state reported, "May be all or none as case may be." Three states reported giving no shopwork. One state said, "Only farm-shop classes get any shop."

Table 2

Organization of the Farm-Mechanics Course

	No	Yes
A. All-day Classes (13 reporting)		
1. Do you teach all the farm-mechanics work in a single year?	13	..
2. Do you distribute farm-mechanics work thruout the four years?	13
3. Do you try to have the farm-mechanics work dovetailed into classroom work?	2	11
4. Is the farm-mechanics work made functional and flexible to meet the needs of each boy in respect to his supervised practice program?	13
B. Part-time Classes (13 reporting)		
1. Is shopwork offered in the part-time program?	3	10
^a 2. What proportion of all part-time courses offered will include farm-mechanics work?
3. Are any courses offered with farm mechanics as the only subject?	8	5
4. Is the shopwork made functional and flexible to meet the needs of each student's supervised practice program?	5	8
5. Is the farm mechanics dovetailed into classroom work?	5	8
C. Evening Classes (13 reporting)		
1. Is shopwork offered in evening-class work?	5	8
^b 2. What proportion of all evening-class courses offered will include farm-mechanics work?
3. Are any courses offered with farm mechanics as the only subject?	9	4
4. Is the shopwork made functional and flexible to meet the needs of each student's supervised practice program?	5	8
5. Is the farm mechanics dovetailed into classroom work?	6	7

^a Eight states reported on this question. The minimum was 10 percent, average 20 percent, and the maximum 35 percent.

^b Seven states reported on this question. The minimum was 10 percent, the average 20 percent, and the maximum 20 percent.

Table 3

Contents of Farm Mechanics Taught in the All-Day, Part-Time, and Evening Schools

UNITS	Number of States Teaching Each Unit		
	All-Day	Part-Time	Evening
Carpentry.....	12	9	5
Soldering.....	12	9	5
Toolfitting.....	12	10	5
Saw filing.....	10	6	4
Harness repair.....	9	8	5
Machinery repair.....	10	9	5
Plumbing.....	9	6	4
Electricity.....	10	4	3
Concrete work.....	8	4	3
Power machinery.....	7	5	2
Forging.....	11	4	3
Cold-iron work.....	11	8	4
Rope work.....	6	3	3
Auto mechanics.....	8	3	2
Painting.....	12	7	4

Table 4

Number of Schools Having Shop Program

States*	All-Day Classes		Part-Time Classes		Evening Schools	
	Total No. Departments in State	No. Departments Having Shop Program	Total No. Schools in State	No. Schools Having Shop Program	Total No. Schools in State	No. Schools Having Shop Program
1	40	34	20	8	29	4
2	16	16	16	1	16	0
3	24	24	0	0	0	0
4	48	48	21	7	0	0
5	22	22	1	1	21	3
6	19	18	0	0	1	0
7	310	300	175	125	0	0
8	91	75	21	2	105	0
9	36	35	20	4	5	1
10	12	12	0	0	0	0
11	251	251	104	44	22	6
12	388	388	239	60	237	49
Total	1257	1223	627	252	436	63
%	xx	97	xx	40.4	xx	14.4

*12 States reporting.

cerning these inadequacies ranged from a frank "no" to "lack of facilities" for giving further training. However, leaders in many of the states indicated proposed additions and revisions underway to improve present conditions.

In five states it was indicated that the existing training program was adequate to meet the needs of vocational agriculture teachers. It is interesting to note that in these states the requirements in force for farm-mechanics training varied widely.

2. In answer to a question on shop supervision, leaders in most states reported that supervision was carried on by the regular supervisors and rarely by specially trained shop supervisors. In the main, the answers indicated a deficiency in shop supervision. Many felt closer supervision would be necessary to insure a better shop program in the departments of vocational agriculture.

In a few states it was believed that the shop supervision is adequate under the present program. In one state it was reported that "Our farmers do not fail on shopwork deficiencies." If this is so it would indicate that the present shop program is adequate and supervision is adequate.

3. As in other questions, the respondents from the several states did not wholly agree on the advisability or need of an itinerant teacher-trainer. A few indicated a definite need while others did not feel it would be practical to

divide supervisory responsibilities. It was reported in some states that the program was not large enough to warrant the use of an itinerant teacher-trainer in farm mechanics.

4. In response to a request for additional suggestions or comments concerning farm mechanics a respondent in one state reported that "Our teachers seem to have the tendency to spend an unwarranted proportion of their time in shop on woodworking projects and unimportant activities compared with the very important work of teaching care and repair of farm machinery. Perhaps in some instances teachers do not feel as well equipped in this activity, but I believe it is mostly a failure of their ability to develop a point of view."

This statement reflects opinions and statements made from other states as well. It also indicates a need for closer supervision on the job and perhaps additional training before employment, as well as in-service training to "develop the right point of view."

Summary

A summary of this study indicates, on the whole, that state leaders are aware of present deficiencies in the farm-mechanics program. They are almost unanimous in their opinions that more teacher-training work is needed and that in-service training and supervision should be carried on. Following are the most frequent recommendations made by respondents:

1. Provide more nearly adequate shop facilities in the departments of vocational agriculture.
2. Provide more technical courses in agricultural engineering, especially care and repair of farm-power and field machinery.
3. Improve teacher-training facilities and programs.
4. Develop an in-service training program.
5. Develop and improve courses of study in farm mechanics.

On the whole, the leaders in vocational education realize the needs of farm mechanics. The nature of the program varies among states, and its needs vary among states due to the climate, type of farming, and needs of farmers.

*Mr. Longhouse is now on leave of absence as Special Representative in the National Defense Training Program, Washington, D. C.

DEFENSE-TRAINING CLASSES IN TEXAS



A portion of the out-of-school youth enrolled in woodworking and auto-mechanics courses in the Memphis, Texas High School. Since the organization of the farm-shop course 53 out-of-school young men have been taking the courses made available by the National Defense program. The farm-shop course has 3,000 square feet of working and storage space.—Gene Barnett, Teacher of Agriculture.

Studies and Investigations

C. S. ANDERSON

Farm Youth as a Vantage Point*

H. E. LATTIG, Teacher Education,
Moscow, Idaho



H. E. Lattig

ONE of the most significant questions with which local, state, and Federal administrators are faced is the one that seeks to test the ultimate practical worth of the instruction and training in agriculture that is offered in our high schools. While we cannot answer this question with a feeling of complete assurance, we do have at least a partial answer to the following, thanks to the efforts of those who paused for a second look:

1. What percentage of those who study vocational agriculture later enter the occupation?
2. Are there places in agriculture for all who take training for it?
3. Is there a correlation between the number of years of training and the selection of agriculture as a vocation?
4. Is a boy from a rented farm less likely to enter agriculture than a boy from a parent-owned farm?
5. Does the occupation of the father have a direct influence on the occupational choice of the boy?
6. What percentage of town boys enter agriculture after leaving school?
7. Is the boy who has been outstanding in FFA work more likely to become a farmer than one who has not?
8. Is the size of the supervised farm-practice program an indication that the boy will or will not choose agriculture as an occupation?
9. Is there a relationship between the size of his family and the probability of the boy becoming a farmer?
10. Is there any correlation between high-school grades and entrance into farming?
11. Does size of the home farm indicate the probability of the boy becoming a farmer?
12. What percentage of those who enter farming remain in the occupation over a period of years?
13. Is the choice of agriculture as a vocation usually governed by more than one factor?

In attempting to find answers to these questions, most investigators have employed much the same procedures, namely, the questionnaire, interview, and school records. This, in itself, demonstrates the value of personal records for boys who enroll in vocational agriculture. Much could be learned in years to come if each and every department would keep such records.

I shall discuss briefly each of the foregoing questions and express an opinion as to what available studies indicate re-

garding them. These will be opinions and not necessarily statements of fact, because all results do not agree, thus making it impossible to draw definite conclusions in all cases.

What Follow-up Studies Show

All of us are familiar with one or more studies which have been made to determine the percentage of those who enter agriculture after having had one or more years of training in all-day classes. This problem seems to have been the most popular of all and many data concerning it are now available. Some 24 such studies covering over 46,000 cases were examined for the purpose of obtaining a fair average for the country as a whole. Of these 46,000-odd boys over 24,000, or approximately 52 percent, were engaged in agriculture at the time the studies were made. Since these studies represented a broad cross-section of the nation as a whole and were made over a period of 10 or 12 years, it would seem that we might accept 52 percent as being a fairly close estimate.

These same studies indicated that approximately six percent of the students enter occupations related to agriculture and that around five percent enroll in colleges of agriculture after leaving high school. Thus we can say with some degree of assurance that between 60 and 65 percent of these boys who traveled along for a time with the caravan later made use of the things they had learned along the way. But what of the other 30 to 35 percent? Did they take part out of curiosity or inertia or because the leaders did some good advertising? Or were they in earnest when they started, but changed their minds as they proceeded? We should learn more about this group in the future.

We hear much these days about the dearth of opportunities for young people. In view of this we quite naturally wonder whether any considerable number of our boys would like to become farmers but cannot because of lack of finances or a farm on which to live. We have every reason to believe that some do find themselves in this situation, but little in the way of actual data is available on the subject. We do know that some young men, when asked why they chose another occupation, reply that they were unable to become farmers because of lack of finances, but we cannot be sure that such was the case in all instances.

Bases for Selection

If the above figures represent reasonably accurate estimates for the country as a whole, we still have approximately one-third who cannot or will not put the training to actual use in the vocation they are to follow. This immediately

raises the question of selection, and what should be done about it. We have sufficient data at hand to give us a fair idea of the type of boy who will become a farmer. Shall we try to pick such boys for our classes? For example, there is much evidence at hand to show that a boy coming from a rented place is far less likely to return to the farm than one who comes from a parent-owned place. Some of this evidence is startling. One investigator found that 79 percent of the boys who come from parent-owned or partly owned places became farmers, while only 47 percent of the sons of tenants chose to enter the occupation. Another found that the percentages were 71.9 and 17.8, respectively. If the chances are about two to one against the boy from a rented farm, shall we tell him so when he is considering the possibilities in agriculture?

From the beginning we have arranged our courses in such a manner as to make it possible for a young man to take three or four years of training while in high school, assuming, of course, that the more training he received the more likely he would be to make use of that training. During recent years a number of persons have tried to determine whether we were right in making that assumption. In the main it seems that we were because most of our information indicates that there is a direct correlation here. However, one investigator discovered that this did not hold true in all communities. He found that out of 7,651 cases, 51.8 percent were farming, but 39.49 percent had had two years or less of vocational agriculture, while only 16.83 percent had received three or four years of training. Perhaps the seeming cause for this discrepancy was the high percentage of tenant farmers found.

The occupation of the father seems to indicate to a marked degree the possibility of a boy becoming a farmer after leaving school. As one man put it, "Only farmers' sons become farmers." Without exception, the studies examined indicated that unless a boy lived on a farm while studying vocational agriculture, the chances were all against his entering that occupation as a lifework. At the same time we learned that farm boys who drop out of school with little or no vocational training are even more likely to remain farmers than those who have been enrolled in our classes for one or more years. Here is something to indicate that we are not reaching many who need our help the most.

The town boy has been a source of worry to most instructors, partly because he is enrolled upon the recommendation of the principal and partly because he is always a problem when it comes to a supervised practice program. I am wondering how many of our teachers realize that the chances of town boys becoming farmers are about one in nine or ten. The information we have at hand might well lead us to conclude that such lads should be encouraged to take other subjects than just vocational agriculture.

Factors Related to Establishment

There seems to be no doubt about the correlation between the size of farm on which a boy is raised and his chances for becoming a farmer. The highest percentages come from medium to large-sized farms, and a much lower percentage from small places. The small farms, in turn, rank higher than rented places in this respect.

What are the reasons for this? Is it because these young men have more opportunities to carry on large programs of supervised practice and thus are better prepared to farm; or is it because the parents are better able to give them help when they are ready to strike out on their own? We can be sure that part of the answer can be found in the fact that such places provide more opportunities for father-and-son partnerships, and this is one means thru which many young men are getting a start. Without doubt, this practice is increasing in popularity while hired men are becoming fewer in number.

For years we have been striving to improve the supervised practice work thru increased scope and long-time programs. In so doing we believed we were improving the training and assisting the boy toward a start in farming. Recent studies seem to prove that we have been right in this, because the majority of boys with large supervised practice programs seem destined to become farmers. However, there is a question as to whether the supervised practice work should have all the credit. It is quite possible that the size of the home farms and the ability of the parents to give financial assistance were the determining factors.

If a teacher visits a farm for the first time and finds that Johnnie (who expects to enroll in agriculture) has two or three brothers, he can be pretty certain that Johnnie is facing a real handicap if he expects to operate that farm at some future date. If Johnnie does make a start it will likely be as a farm laborer or tenant. If the brothers are older than Johnnie and the place is small, his handicap is even greater. If, on the other hand, the teacher finds a place where the home is modern and has many conveniences, then Johnnie is apt to show an inclination to remain on the place after finishing his high-school work. At least, certain studies seem to point toward that conclusion.

One would naturally assume that boys who have gained distinction in the Future Farmer organization would be likely to enter and succeed in farming, but we cannot as yet prove this conclusively. From the limited data at hand, it appears that the percentage of State Farmers who are actually farming is a little less than the average for the entire group. Since these lads are bright and aggressive it may be that they are encouraged by their high-school instructors to enter college. Thus quite a few of them become interested in other fields of work.

Do Young Men Leave the Home Community?

The hypothesis that the training program should be centered around the boy and local community problems is borne out by investigations which seem to prove that the majority of those who

take up agriculture do so in the communities where they received their training. A state-wide study recently completed in Utah, which covered the years 1918 to 1938, showed that 85 percent of all former all-day students remained in the state and 79.6 percent remained in the high-school area where they received their training. Of those who entered some other occupation, 54.4 percent remained in the high-school area. More will be said regarding this interesting study later on.

Not all boys who enter agriculture after leaving school remain in that classification. Only a limited amount of work has been done on this problem, but it seems safe to say that from 12 to 15 percent will move into other occupations during the first five years after leaving school. On the other hand, some who first seek other employment later drift back into agriculture, thus balancing the figures to some degree.

The Utah survey previously mentioned is of particular interest for two reasons. First, it covers the state as a whole over an extended period of time; and second, it brings out certain factors which heretofore have received very little consideration. For example, it shows that when large numbers are considered, there is very little difference in the average school marks between the group which enters agriculture and the one which does not. The figures were 77.1 percent for the agricultural group and 77.5 percent for the non-agricultural group. This does not necessarily contradict the statement that most of the very best students enter other fields of employment.

The study also showed that the boys in the group which remained in agriculture completed two projects during the training period against 1.4 for those who did not. Farm laborers and common laborers completed the least number of projects of any of the occupational divisions. Fifty-six percent of those who entered other fields finished high school, while 47.7 percent of those in the agricultural group graduated.

Research Reveals Need for Guidance

We are not yet ready to set up a definite plan of selection even tho we do have a lot of valuable information at hand, because most of the data deal with individual factors, and there is much evidence to show that a boy's choice of agriculture as a life vocation is governed by more than one factor. However, any teacher with sound judgment should be able to make good use of this information without seeming to influence the choice of his students, and certainly we might expect more co-operation from school administrators if they were better informed on the subject. Without doubt, it becomes increasingly evident that guidance is an important function of teachers of vocational agriculture.

There is much research yet to be done. More state-wide studies should be made, and more consideration should be given to the effect of multiple factors in choice of occupation. *We should follow representative groups of young men for extended periods of time in order to learn more about the long-time effect of our training.* Since many of the boys drop vocational agriculture during or at the end of the first year, indicating that for many the training is pre-vocational, we should

give more thought to the course content of the first year. Quite possibly here is an opportunity which we have overlooked for judicious use of selective factors.

And finally, if we are looking for a really tough one, we might try to prove that former students have succeeded in farming not because of native ability and determination, but as a result of the training we have given them.

*Paper presented before the Agricultural Section of the American Vocational Association at San Francisco, California, Dec. 16, 1940.

Philosophy of Method

(Continued from page 209)

has a place in attaining many of the objectives that may be termed constants. Standardized products in education, where the products can be justified, as elsewhere, can usually be produced with greater efficiency by social than by individual undertakings. Not only does such a procedure save time of pupils and teacher, but apparently it may be justified on grounds of its effectiveness. These statements must not be interpreted to deny the very important place of individual instruction.

In this article we have referred to changing behavior thru behaving. Thus the expressions, "We learn to do by doing," "What we learn is what we practice." These expressions are literally true. We learn to do by doing; we learn to do what we do. Again, the educator is forced to evaluate present behavior in terms of its effect on future behavior. If this be not in relation to an objective he has—definite objective or hopeful aspiration—it must be, at least, in relation to future behavior he is willing to approve.

Behavior and Freedom

Behavior must not be conceived of too narrowly. It is perhaps never limited to mere manipulative acts. Otherwise, improvement in behavior would seem to be impossible except in the direction of becoming more automatic, non-varying. As one practices, he is drawn toward the standard he accepts—thus the possibility of improvement thru practice, the necessity for the educator's developing the standard. What the standard should be is, in part, a matter of philosophy.

Today we hear a good deal about freedom. We want to be free. But freedom is more than absence of outside interference; it is found in the being actively responsible for the intelligent ordering of one's own conduct. Physical freedom not guided by intellect becomes irresponsible. Freedom of thought, to mean anything, must have opportunity to test its consequences in overt behavior. Only insofar as one is free can he seek and strive. Otherwise, he is coerced, pushed, driven by the urges upon him. Freedom, in school or out, is not synonymous with selecting the path of least resistance and most comfort, doing just as one pleases. These things make for bondage, the bondage of whims and ignorance, the bondage of not being able to order one's own conduct—material bondage, spiritual bondage.

Future Farmers of America

L. R. HUMPHERYS

FFA Banquets That Are Planned and Conducted by Members

L. F. HALL, Teacher Education,
Manhattan, Kansas

THIS year it has been my privilege to attend a good many FFA banquets and other parent meetings. These meetings were all well conducted and I thoroughly enjoyed them. I would like to bring together the experiences of the teachers who conducted these banquets and outline some of the more important things to be considered in planning a banquet.



L. F. Hall

Why Hold Banquets?

First, let us consider the reasons for having an FFA banquet. From the boys' standpoint the objectives would probably be:

1. To express our appreciation to our parents for the opportunities they are giving us.
2. To provide an opportunity for the parents of the various members of our chapter to get better acquainted with each other.
3. To entertain our parents and show them a good time.
4. To further acquaint our parents with the objectives and achievements of our FFA chapter.
5. To give recognition to outstanding achievements of members of the FFA chapter.
6. To give recognition to people in the community who have helped to further the program of vocational agriculture and the activities of the chapter.
7. To stimulate each FFA member to strive for greater achievement next year.

From the teacher's standpoint the banquet is an effective means of giving boys training in leadership and co-operation, and of giving the parents and other guests an over-all view of the program of FFA and vocational agriculture. It should be essentially an achievement banquet. Some new objectives may be presented but, for the most part, accomplishment should be stressed.

When to Hold the Banquet

The objectives set up for the annual FFA banquet should be reviewed and the banquet scheduled for a time of year that will permit the achievement of those objectives. Ordinarily from mid-school year to early spring is the ideal time. The date should be determined by November 1, and placed officially on the school calendar.

Plans

Plans for the banquet should be started weeks in advance. Every detail should be planned and the boys appearing on the program should be given training and practice so that they will feel confident in their ability to do the thing expected of them. It may be necessary to give the boys school time for making plans and writing and rehearsing speeches. If this time is used to advantage the boys will be receiving a fine type of training in leadership and co-operation. Since the annual FFA banquet climaxes a year of achievement and gives the boys experience in carrying a worth-while activity to a successful conclusion, the time spent in preparing for it is fully justified.

The Guest List

Chapters should strive to have 100 percent attendance of all active FFA members, including those who have graduated from the high school in the last three years. At least every three years the chapter should endeavor to have all FFA alumni in the community present at their banquet. The presence of the alumni lends prestige to the organization and encourages achievement of active members. It also is another way to organize support of the alumni since they must be kept informed as to objectives and achievement of the organization in order to know how best to serve it.

The alumni enjoy returning to the high school and renewing their interest in FFA. Teachers have found they will be glad to pay for their meal in order to attend.

In many instances alumni have been interested enough in the FFA banquet to return from college for the occasion. At one banquet this year there were 45 alumni present, many with their wives. The total attendance at this banquet was 250 people.

No senior FFA member should be allowed to feel that this is his last FFA banquet.

The mothers as well as the fathers should be guests. The mother is just as interested in the welfare of the son and in his schoolwork as the father. In many cases the mothers help with preparations for the banquet. Even so, arrangements should be worked out so that they can be seated with the sons and the fathers at the banquet table.

The inviting of younger children in the family has not proved desirable.

The guests to be invited in addition to the parents should be carefully considered by the chapter. Typically the

school board members, the superintendent, and the high-school principal are invited. It is a nice courtesy to include the wives of these men on the guest list unless the number which can be accommodated is extremely limited.

Other high-school teachers are often invited, especially those who have in any way contributed to the success of the banquet and program. The music teacher may have assisted with the music. The teacher of public speaking may have rehearsed the boys who appear on the program.

The list of guests may be extended to include others in the community to whom the chapter feels indebted and those whom they would like to acquaint with their program of activities.

The completed list should be approved by the chapter.

Where to Hold Banquets

In most cases the high-school building offers the best place for the banquet. The home economics room, the school cafeteria, the vocational agriculture room, or the gymnasium may be used. The selection depends upon the capacity of the various rooms to accommodate the number of guests desired and the convenience in serving food. If the gymnasium is used, care must be taken to concentrate the seating of the people; otherwise it is difficult to hear the speakers. If possible the room in which the food is prepared should be near the dining-room to prevent food getting cold.

Occasionally the banquet is held in one room, and after the banquet the guests are taken to the auditorium for the program. Except in unusual circumstances, this should be avoided, since it is better if the program can be carried on immediately after the meal without delay or confusion. Then, too, the banquet room and tables are appropriately decorated and form a nice background for the program.

One of the advantages of holding the banquet at the high school is the fact that it makes it possible to hold an open house in the vocational agriculture rooms to display the work of the FFA members in connection with the banquet.

Another advantage is the fact that it permits the chapter to choose one of many different plans for financing and serving the meal. If the banquet is held at a church, the ladies of the church usually serve the meal at a fixed price per plate which may increase the expense of the banquet.

There are a good many plans which have been used successfully for financing the food and arranging for the serving of the meal. Frequently, the home economics teacher and her students prepare and serve the food. In some cases the food is purchased with FFA chapter funds, in others the food is donated by the individual members. Quite often the meat is furnished by the chapter from a co-operative production project. At a good many banquets the mothers of the members bring all or part of the food already

prepared. The mothers always seem to enjoy having an opportunity to do something for the chapter.

Three types of meal service are in general use, all of which are satisfactory:

1. Formal service of food in courses.
2. Informal or family service in which food is placed on the table and passed.
3. Buffet or cafeteria service.

Receiving Guests

The boys should prepare in advance their plans for acting as cordial hosts to their parents and other guests. Arrangements should be made for meeting guests at the outer door, for assisting them with their wraps, and for ushering them to the room where guests are to assemble until banquet time. It will facilitate the matter of getting acquainted if name cards which may be worn conspicuously are provided for everyone present. Chapter members should mingle with the guests, greeting them and making introductions at every opportunity.

Length of Banquet

Three hours is the outside limit for the length of time any banquet should last. No matter how inspiring the program may be the seats get hard and the guests get restless if the time extends too long. The banquet should start not later than seven o'clock.

Some teachers state that guests who are farmers cannot get to the banquet reasonably early. It is our contention that the annual FFA banquet is a very special event, and that the parents, realizing the significance of the occasion to their boys, will make the necessary effort to be at the banquet on time.

Closing the program at a definite time is merely a matter of careful organization. Talks properly prepared can be timed to the minute.

Seating Arrangements

To avoid confusion at the time guests are seated, detailed plans for seating the boys and their guests should be worked out in advance by the committee on seating arrangements. If the committee can know in advance who is coming to the banquet, a chart showing the arrangement of tables and the location of places at each table can be worked out. This will enable each boy to know where he will find his place card and those of his parents. As a general thing each boy is seated between his parents.

Usually the toastmaster and special guests appearing on the program are seated at a table so placed that they can be seen and heard by all those present.

The officers are sometimes seated at a special speakers table. However, the opening and closing ceremonies are just as effective when the officers are stationed in various parts of the room. At some of the banquets a table for the officers is arranged but not used during the meal. When the program starts, the officers take their stations.

Plans should be made for having one member responsible for helping each special guest find his or her place. Each boy who has this added responsibility can tell his parents where to find their places before it is time to be seated. After he has taken the special guest to his place he can take his own place between his parents.

Introductions

The introduction of the parents of the boys is desirable but must be carefully planned. The students should practice making introductions ahead of time. They should be told to speak distinctly and loud enough to be heard easily. In introducing his parents a boy should stand, introduce his guests, remain standing with them for a moment and then be seated with them. In many cases the introduction of parents is the chapter roll-call response. Another plan often used is to have the introductions made in rotation around the tables. If this is to be done a line of arrows around the tables on the chart prepared by the committee on seating arrangements should show clearly the order in which the rotation will go, and every chapter member should familiarize himself with that order. This will prevent anyone being overlooked.

The chapter member who is to introduce special guests should have a complete and typewritten list of the guests he is to introduce. He should be coached as to pronunciation of names and any comments he plans to make. Care must be taken not to overlook any guests who should be introduced. Recognition should be given to the home economics teacher and her girls if they have assisted with the banquet, and to any others who have helped the chapter with preparations.

Program

The whole program from beginning to end should be put on by the boys. It is not necessary nor desirable for the teacher to appear on the program at all, except in the opening and closing ceremonies. Of course he will join the boys in being hospitable to all guests.

A limited amount of *group singing* is highly desirable as a means of breaking reserve and promoting a feeling of good fellowship. To be most effective, well-known songs should be used; mimeographed song sheets should be provided for each guest; a good accompanist should be secured; and the chapter should practice the songs ahead of time. Practice on the FFA song is particularly important.

Quite often the music teacher leads the singing, but it is much more effective if a chapter member can do this.

Instrumental music during the meal is sometimes provided by some high-school group outside the FFA chapter. This is very effective from an entertainment standpoint. However, it is not essential and may have some disadvantages. It may make the banquet seem more formal and have a tendency to limit the visiting at the tables. Also, it tends to lengthen the time given to the meal.

Special musical numbers by FFA members are desirable as a part of the program. Quite often a member can give a reading or a demonstration that will have the same entertainment value as a musical number.

Opening and closing ceremonies. Ordinarily the opening ceremony is given after the meal to begin the formal program. Full chapter paraphernalia must be on hand. It is essential that the opening and closing ceremonies be perfectly memorized and carefully rehearsed.

Talks. The talks can best be given by FFA members. Parents always enjoy seeing their own boys and their neighbors' boys appear. For this reason it is better to have several short talks than a few longer ones. Boys should make the awards, report worth-while achievements, and outline the objectives of the FFA organization.

Altho it is well to give the audience a comprehensive view of the state and national FFA organization the talks should feature the objectives and accomplishments of the local chapter and its members. For example, if a boy is talking on the State Farmer degree, he should show how the local State Farmer has equaled or surpassed the requirements set up by the State Association.

If a boy is talking on the Green Hand degree, he should show how the local candidates as a group have met the requirements for this degree. A closing sentence similar to this leads very nicely into a recitation of the FFA creed:

"Every candidate for the Green Hand degree is required to learn the creed of the Future Farmers of America, which is, 'I BELIEVE IN THE FUTURE OF FARMING, with a faith born not of words but of deeds—'"

The FFA creed, when delivered with clarity and force by a boy, is always a highlight on the program. It arouses enthusiasm and gives a feeling of pride in American youth and in the FFA organization. In these times people unavoidably contrast the aspirations and activities of our youth organizations with those of the youth organizations across the water. No wonder they are thrilled when they hear the creed.

Coaching Speakers

Boys should be specific in reporting on chapter goals and achievements. For example, a boy might say, "One of the goals of our chapter is to be able to say, 'Every member grows a feed crop.' We are rather proud of our achievement. Of our 35 active members, 32 are growing feed crops on a crop-share basis with their fathers. This program alone involves over 300 acres of land." Quotations from the manual on state and national objectives are not enough. Local goals and achievements must be featured.

Thru careful direction boys can be coached to give talks that are nearly perfect. Teachers who are particularly successful in training boys along this line follow a procedure something like this: have the boy write the talk; bring it to the teacher for criticism; make any necessary changes; and then practice giving it until he and the teacher are satisfied with its delivery. The result is a talk that makes guests marvel that a boy could do so well. Parents will never fail to realize that a boy's fine talk is a direct result of the teacher's fine training. An outside speaker is not essential. He may give a very fine talk and from this standpoint be worth while, yet a boy program, from the standpoint of parents and guests interested in the FFA organization, is the most effective. If an outside speaker is invited he should be definitely limited as to the time he should use.

In showing the Future Farmers of America film this year it was requested that it be scheduled as the last event on the program.

Part-Time Course Leads to Five Defense-Training Classes

WARREN E. SCOGGAN, Teacher,
Lusk, Wyoming

IN MANY of the ranching areas surrounding our rural communities, where drought, over-grazing, and large families have taken their toll, there are large numbers of young men who have a rather gloomy outlook for the future because they realize they are unemployable. The oldest boy, in many cases, is in line to manage the ranch; while the younger boys are discouraged by drought and ranching conditions, lack of money to continue an education, or perhaps they feel that "book learning" is an abject waste of time when they have two willing hands and a desire to use them.

In many rural areas, until the defense program was started, the only educational aid to rural boys and young men was the agricultural shop. The modern shop is so equipped that work in blacksmithing, welding, truck and tractor mechanics, and woodworking may be offered. Here the farm boy may fit himself for a job in a skilled field where he is needed.

Discovering such a need in the community a year ago, I began making inquiries as to the nature of instruction desired. I found the greatest interest lay in arc and acetylene welding, with sufficient interest in blacksmithing to warrant consideration. News items were published in local papers with a rough draft of a proposed teaching program, so that each man could come prepared to discuss various problems at the first meeting.

At this first meeting nearly a year ago the boys started coming long before the appointed hour. We had a very bad spring blizzard that night, but there was an attendance of 28, including several young men who had driven thru the blizzard from communities 25 to 30 miles distant.

An Assistant Instructor is Secured

Not being able to accommodate so many students, I found it necessary to work out a program with the local blacksmith as a part-time instructor. We arranged to meet four nights instead of two nights each week for ten weeks. Fourteen men came on Monday and Wednesday nights, and the other 14 came on Tuesday and Friday nights.

During the 24-hour period until the next meeting the grapevine telegraph had apparently been working, for there were 41 present. All we could do was to inform the new arrivals that we would continue the program in the fall as there was insufficient equipment to handle more men.

A lecture-shop combination was started, but this I found to be unsatisfactory. Aside from two or three men, who had had work in college, the students could not take notes. They were slow writers and could not follow the discussion. Teachers of vocational agriculture too often fail to realize that the use of academic procedures has often been the cause for many of the boys dropping out of school in the first place. This lecture method was discontinued

after three weeks, and I found that the students would pick up necessary information much faster while on a job. I found also that as soon as the boys were ready for construction work, interest doubled when they were given jobs such as the construction or repair of swings, bicycle racks, worktables, farm machinery, slides, and other devices which were needed or requested.

I felt all thru the course that the men were serious in their interest. We had bad weather, but the men came. Some of them had long trips to make and alternated cars to divide expense. Occasionally one would miss a night and would apologize two or three times the following session for being detained in some manner.

One advantage of the mechanics-type of schoolwork from the standpoint of the teacher, is that many sessions must be held before the student may reach employability even as an apprentice. This gives the instructor time to make contacts and follow up the program with placements. We do not have a heavy placement record to date, since very few can be made employable in such a short time. However, a few have been absorbed into local industries and have become self-supporting. Incidentally, they comment freely that the part-time school was responsible for their success. Some of these men had families and were practically on relief.

National Defense Classes Are Started

Since there were so many inquiries during the course last year, I began to wonder what could be done to accommodate these men in the fall of the current school year. In July, the National Defense Training Program became effective. It seemed apparent, since our part-time program along this same line had been so enthusiastically received, that this program could be the solution to our problem.

In September we started our first school for National Defense enrollees with 14 qualified students enrolled and a waiting list of 45. By February, we had two schools running in the agricultural shop, one in a local blacksmith shop, and one in Lance Creek—30 miles away. A total of 79 men are attending these four classes, and there is a waiting list of an undetermined number.

Some of these men will become definitely established in a lifework as a result of this program. It appears that our first part-time school was largely responsible for letting the people know that it is possible to have specialized training at home.

It is not the critic who counts, not the man who points out how the strong man stumbled, or where the doer of deeds could have done better. The credit belongs to the man who is actually in the arena, whose face is marred by dust and sweat and blood, who errs and comes short again and again, who knows the great enthusiasms and great devotions and spends himself in a worthy cause, who at the best knows in the end the triumph of high achievements, and who at the worst, if he fails, at least fails while daring greatly; so that his place shall never be with those cold and timid souls who know neither victory nor defeat.—Theodore Roosevelt.

Supervision

(Continued from page 211)

I feel like saying that a crime has been committed when we burden a student with a loan, and then do not follow him thru in carrying on his project. Sometimes teachers of agriculture take credit for the success a student attains by his own initiative and intelligence. The problem, as I see it, is not the lack of information on how to supervise loan projects, or any other project, but rather the failure to give enough supervision. The vocational part of our agricultural teaching is the supervised practice on the home farm of the student. Much of the agriculture that we carry on in the classroom is too academic.

Estimate of Returns Is Essential

It should be clearly understood by the student what the possible financial outcome of a project will be before a loan is recommended for his project. Many of the loans applied for were too high in comparison with the possible financial return from the project. For example, let us take an acre of potatoes as a project. Let us assume that the average yield in an area is 200 bushels per acre, price per bushel received is 75 cents for No. 1's, and the cost of producing the acre is considered and worked out according to the methods that the particular student has to employ on his home farm. A reasonable figure can then be arrived at as to what amount of money should be loaned to the student for growing an acre of potatoes. Allowance should be made for crop hazards such as frost, drought, and disease loss. How much money should be loaned to a student who wants to produce an acre of potatoes? The particular items that I have mentioned should be carefully worked out by the student and his instructor before the student applies for a loan.

When spring and summer come, the real supervised farm practices should be put into effect and carried out. This is not being done in many cases, and the loan project is just one of these things which is reported on paper with too little supervised practice being carried out. Agriculture instructors are so busy going to meetings, summer camps, fairs and what not, that these three months of summer which should be used for supervising farm practice of their students are soon gone, and another school year begins. My belief is that too many air castles are built in the classroom, and not enough actual teaching is done in relation to the home farm of the student by supervisory visits.

In financing farm-practice projects or farming programs of students, the keeping of records was emphasized in the rules and regulations of the loan fund. I believe that we must insist on students keeping records up to date thruout the year. The tendency is to postpone the filling out of the record book until the end of the year. This should not be done because there is quite apt to be a certain amount of inaccuracy in so doing, and record keeping may lose its value.

Man is like a tack—useful if he has a good head and is pointed in the right direction—but even though he is driven he can go only as far as his head will let him.—Selected.

